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EXAMINATION TIME

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At some time or other almost all teachers have to act as examiners: they have to set examinations for their own or other classes, to watch classes while they write the answers, and to correct and mark the answers when they have been written. This task is not so easy as may at first appear, and the purpose of this book is to bring to light some of the difficulties which a teacher may meet when he turns examiner, and to suggest ways in which he may deal with these difficulties when he meets them.

§ 1. TWO KINDS OF EXAMINATION

There are two kinds of examination, and their purposes are quite different.

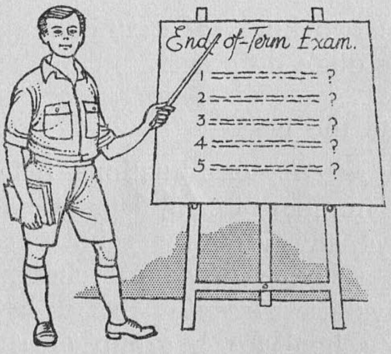
1. To choose the best

These are *selective* examinations, held to choose from a large number of candidates the best or most suitable boys and girls for scholarships, or for entrance to a higher grade of school. They are almost always set *externally*, that is by examiners outside the school for a group of schools, and sometimes for a very large group of schools.

2. To separate the passes from the failures

Some examinations of this kind are also *external*, for example, School Certificate,* which is set and corrected in England for a very large group of schools all over the world. But the tests which take place in most schools at the end of the term or at the end of the school year are also of this kind. These are usually *internal* examinations, of importance only to the one school in which they are set, answered and corrected.

Most of you for whom this book is written will be class teachers or Headmasters (or Headmistresses) in Primary Schools, or in Junior Secondary or Middle Schools. You will not often have to set and correct examinations for any school other than your own. The purpose of most of the tests you set will be to decide who has passed and who has failed in the term or year's work. So this book will deal mostly with internal examinations of the second kind.



* Cambridge Overseas School Certificate or General Certificate of Education (ordinary level).

§ 2. TWO METHODS OF ATTACK

Although you may never have to set or correct papers for a selective examination, it is important to understand that the methods of attack for the two kinds are quite different. If your aim is to choose the best from a group of candidates, you must aim your questions at the top of the group: you are not really interested in what most of the candidates do; there may be questions which many of them are quite unable to answer, especially if the number of scholarships or places in a secondary school is very small and the number of candidates is very large.

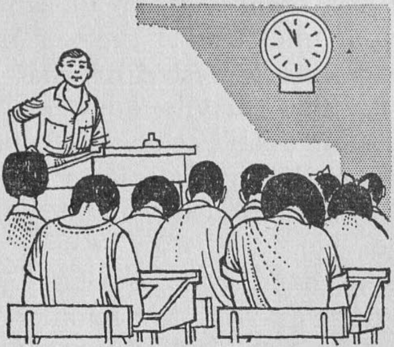
On the other hand, with your tests at the end of the school term or year, the number of passes is probably not limited. Indeed it is quite usual for all those who enter to pass, and possible, though less usual, for all those who enter to fail. When you set these papers, your purpose is to find out what every child in the class knows; you will expect most of them to pass, and so you must aim your questions, not at the top of the class but at the middle or even the lower half of it.

At the end of this book, I shall ask you to think about two very interesting questions.

(i) Can *one* examination serve both the purposes I have set out above?

(ii) Are there good reasons for holding examinations in your school at the end of the term or at the end of the school year?

But for the moment, I will assume there are good reasons for your end of term tests, and that you have decided, or been told, to examine your class in the usual subjects. In the sections which follow I shall make some suggestions to help you to do this in the best possible way.



§ 3. SETTING EXAMINATIONS: CHOOSING QUESTIONS

Of course before you start to set an examination paper you must be clear on one or two points.

(i) What period is the examination to cover?

Are you going to test what has been taught during the term or during the year, or, as is often the case with Arithmetic tests, from the beginning? This will probably be settled in a staff meeting, but if it is not, you will have to make up your own mind.

(ii) What has the class been taught during the chosen period?

It may seem unnecessary to include this question, but I have often seen papers which test only part of the work the class has done—very often it is the last part only, because a teacher naturally thinks first of the things he has taught last. It is certainly worth while to look at the syllabus or at your teaching note-book, and perhaps even to make a note of the most important points your questions have to cover. If you are setting a paper, not for your own class, but for one which has been taught by somebody else, you must find out what part of the syllabus he has done.

The next thing to remember is that you are not going to write the answers yourself. You are going to ask a group of children to do so. They will not know what answer you want, unless you tell them clearly. So you must make up your mind

(iii) What answer exactly do you want?

You must choose your words so carefully that your question leads the way to the answer you want and to no other.

It is a good idea to answer the questions yourself, not in full, but in the form of notes. If you find that the notes you have made contain more than you want, or less, then you must alter the question.

In arithmetic papers it is the custom to set questions which "come out". If, for instance, you include a Long Division sum, see that it "comes out": if it does not, you must ask for an answer to a definite number of places of decimals.

Example No. 1

A Geography teacher in a Middle School decided to set a question about *cotton.* Here are five possible questions which he might have set:

Q. (a) *What do you know about cotton?*

Q. (b) *Write about* 100 *words about cotton growing.*

Q. (c) *Where in Africa is cotton grown? Draw a map to show the most important areas.*

Q. (d) *What kind of climate is needed to grow cotton? Draw a map to show the most important cotton-growing areas in Africa.*

Q. (e) *Your shirt is made of cotton. What happens to the cotton from the time it is planted in the field until the shirt is sold to you in the shop?*

Which of these are good questions? Which are bad? And why?

Here are some notes about them:

Q. (a) *What do you know about cotton?*

What does the examiner want to know? Does he want the class to say how cotton is grown? Or what kind of climate is needed to grow it? Or how cotton goods are manufactured? Or to write about the importance of cotton as a crop?

In fact if a child is to answer the question properly, he must write about all these things: he will probably not have time to do so, and will choose one.

This is a bad question: it is much too vague.

Q. (b) *Write about 100 words about cotton-growing.*

This is also vague. Certainly it limits the time to be spent on it. But it does not explain whether the examiner wants to know where cotton is grown, or how it is grown or what conditions are needed to grow it. No-one could answer all these parts of the question in 100 words. Which does the examiner want?

Q. (c) *Where in Africa is cotton grown? Draw a map to show the most important areas.*

This question has two parts, but the two parts are really the same question asked twice, and this is a waste of time. Surely a better question would be

> *Draw a map of Africa to show the most important areas where cotton is grown.*

Q. (d) *What kind of climate is needed to grow cotton? Draw a map to show the most important cotton-growing areas in Africa.*

This question also has two parts, but they are different. This is a good question.

Q. (e) *Your shirt is made of cotton, etc.*

This also is quite a sensible question, but if it is done well, the answer will be very long.

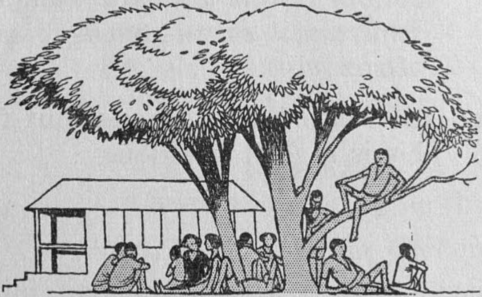
§ 4. SETTING EXAMINATIONS: MORE ABOUT CHOOSING QUESTIONS

This leads directly to the next point:

(iv) How long have the children to answer the paper?

You have now in front of you the paper you have set, and your notes on the answers. Taking into consideration the speed at which the class write, will they be able to finish the paper in the time allowed? Or will most of them probably finish it long before the end of the time allowed? When you have thought about this, it may be necessary to alter the paper, or to alter the time given for it.

It seems to me that a good many teachers set Arithmetic papers which are too short, and papers in subjects like History and Geography which are too long. It is a waste of time if the whole class is sitting under the trees outside for the last half hour of a two-hour paper. On the other hand, you will not really find out what you want to know if most of the class have to hurry through the last question or two.

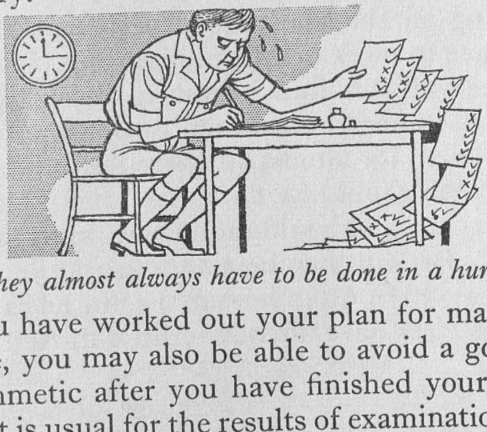


"*Sitting under the trees outside for the last half hour . . .*"

The next question to ask yourself is:

(v) What marks am I going to give for each question?

I have already suggested that, after you have set a paper, you should make notes of the answers you expect. Take these notes and decide what marks you are going to give for each question and for each part of each question. This will save you time when you come to correct the papers, and I am sure you will agree that you want all the time you can get for corrections. They almost always have to be done in a hurry.



"*They almost always have to be done in a hurry*"

If you have worked out your plan for marking in advance, you may also be able to avoid a good deal of Arithmetic after you have finished your corrections. It is usual for the results of examinations to be shown out of 100, that is, *converted to a percentage scale*. It will save you trouble if you mark your papers in the first place out of 100 (or out of some easy fraction or multiple of 100 like 50 or 200).

But the paper you have set may make this difficult. On the next page are two questions set in a Primary School English paper.

Example No. 2

Q. (a) *Give the opposites of: long, dirty, hot, cheap, near, quiet, thin.*

Q. (b) *Give the plurals of: child, knife, goose, sheep, woman, ox.*

If the teacher gives one mark for each answer, the total maximum for the two questions will be 7 + 6 = 13: if he gives two for each, the maximum will be 14 + 12 = 26.

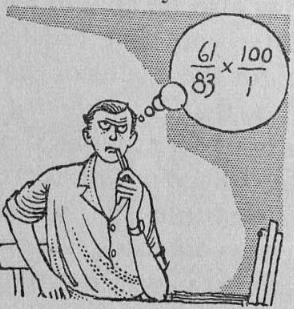
When he comes to correct his paper, he will either

(1) Have a maximum for the whole paper of some number like 83, or 86, and will have to waste time converting all the marks to a percentage scale or

(2) Have to mark other questions out of 17 or 14, which he will not find it easy to do, because, no doubt, his standard maximum during the term has been 10 or 20 for almost all exercises.

What then should he do?

I suggest he should add one word to each question. He will then be able to mark them out of 15 (1 for each) or 30 (2 for each). But he cannot do this if his class have already written the answers.



" *Waste time converting all the marks to a percentage scale . . .*"

§ 5. SETTING EXAMINATIONS: IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

This section will probably be of more use to teachers in advanced classes. In the lower classes of Primary Schools, end of term tests usually require only short answers and a knowledge of facts. But when the examiner begins to ask for longer answers showing a knowledge of cause and effect, or the opinions of the writer, then other points have to be considered.

1. Balance

In an Arithmetic paper, a child may reasonably expect the easy questions to be at the beginning and the more difficult ones at the end. In a History or Geography paper, he may reasonably expect all the long questions to be of much the same value, which will earn him much the same maximum number of marks. If he has a choice of questions, he must be certain that all the alternatives carry the same maximum.

I once sat for a language examination myself, in which I was offered a choice of 8 questions and asked to do 5. I found in the paper these two questions (only the language was not Swahili):

Q.5. *Give the Swahili for: to hope, to trust, to try, to hate, to persuade.*

Q.6. *How are the prepositional forms of verbs used in Swahili? Give examples.*

Q.5 took me two minutes. Q.6 took me half an hour and even then my answer was incomplete. But these were alternative choices: if I had done four other questions, I could have chosen *either* Q.5 or Q.6 for my fifth question and expected to get the same maximum marks. But would the examiner be right if he gave the same total to Q.5 (an answer of five words) and to Q.6 (an essay covering two pages)?

IF YOU GIVE A CHOICE OF QUESTIONS, THE ALTERNATIVES MUST BE EQUAL IN VALUE

You can consider the time the answer is likely to take, or the difficulty of the questions, that is, a short difficult question may reasonably be given the same maximum mark as a longer but easier one.

If you have a question you want to ask, which is much shorter or longer, much more difficult or a different kind of question altogether, you can of course avoid this difficulty by making the question compulsory. You have all no doubt met examination papers which begin, *Do five questions only: all candidates must do Question* 1.

This method is of course often used by examiners for other reasons.

(i) To make sure that everybody answers a question which is especially important.

(ii) For a question of the kind *Write short notes about a, b, c, and d,* which fills in the gaps in the term's work.

2. Thinking and Repeating

Most examiners in Secondary Schools want to know whether children can think for themselves, and what their thoughts are. They do not want the page of notes they have themselves given, repeated word for word in the examination; nor do they want a page of the class text-book repeated from memory. No doubt you want your class to make use of what is in their notes and text-books: that is what they are for.

But if you want to avoid finding large pieces of notes and text-books in examination papers, you must be careful how you set the question.

Example No. 3

A geography teacher had been discussing *Monsoons*. He had given a note with the heading *Monsoons* with sketch maps for June and December. In the end of term test he set the question:

Q. (a) *What do you know about Monsoons?*

Of course he received exactly the same answer from the whole class, with exactly the same sketch maps, in many cases with exactly the same arrows on them. So far, so good: but wouldn't it have been better if he had asked the question differently, so that the class had to think how to use the knowledge he had given them?

It would have been better if he had put the question in one of these forms:

Q. (b) *Is June a wet month* (i) *in Bombay;* (ii) *in Colombo?*
Give reasons for your answer.

Q. (c) *What effect do Monsoons have on the time the dhows sail from Persia to Zanzibar and back again? Draw sketch maps to help explain your answer.*

Q. (d) *Show with the help of sketch maps how the Monsoons help the tea-growers of Ceylon.*

§6. SETTING EXAMINATIONS: A HISTORY PAPER

On the next page is a History paper set for a class which has been learning about the history of Africa up to the end of the age of exploration. It is not quite a true paper, but I have met questions of all these kinds in schools I have visited.

Example No. 4

HISTORY Time 1½ hours

Choose five of the following questions:

1. *Write three lines about each of the following: Clapperton, Denham, Stanley.*
2. *What do you know about Livingstone?*
3. *What was "the triangle of trade?"*
4. *Draw a map to show Stanley's journeys.*
5. *What were the difficulties in the way of early explorers who wanted to reach Central Africa? Draw a map to help explain your answer.*
6. *The source of the Nile had been a mystery for many thousands of years. Who first discovered it?*

Now let us examine this paper and suggest some improvements.

(i) Is 1½ hours enough for five questions? Would it not be better to reduce the questions required to four?

(ii) Would it not be better to underline the number of questions to be answered? It would make it clearer.

(iii) Q.1: the total answer will be only nine lines, but Q.2 and Q.5 will certainly need much longer answer than this. Is Q.1 difficult enough to balance against Q.2 and Q.5?

(iv) Q.1: Clapperton and Denham did some of the exploration together: it is difficult to write of them both separately.

(v) Q.1: is it possible to write anything sensible about these men in three lines? Surely the class should be able to write much more than this?

(vi) Q.1: Stanley appears both in Q.1 and Q.4.

(vii) Q.2: this is a very vague question. The examiner has not guided the candidates to the road he wants them to follow. Many children, far from writing down everything they know in answer to a question like this, answer it very shortly in some such words as these:

"David Livingstone was a Scotsman who went to Africa as a missionary. He made many journeys, and died at Ujiji in 1869."

Of course this answer contains nothing of importance and one error of fact: the child almost certainly knows much more about Livingstone but the examiner has failed to guide his thoughts.

(viii) Q. 3 is almost certainly the heading of a page of notes, and if the whole class writes down exactly the notes in their books, and no-one thinks for himself for one moment, the examiner has only himself to blame.

(ix) Q. 4 is not an entirely satisfactory question, because unless the candidate can draw a very good map of Africa, he cannot show that he knows where Stanley went.

(x) The answer to Q. 6 is one word—"Speke." Did the examiner mean to ask for this answer? If so, it is certainly not well-balanced.

(xi) The questions do not seem to have been set in any sensible order. The paper jumps from Livingstone back to the West African Slave Trade, forward again to Stanley and back again to the early explorers. This makes it more difficult for the children.

(xii) The paper contains nothing about the early waves of invaders, the Nilotic peoples and the Bantu, etc.: nor about the Moslem peoples who spread over North and West Africa before the Europeans came. Of course this may not be in the syllabus, but I half suspect that the examiner has forgotten all about them.

Now that we have made twelve criticisms, we ought to be able to set a better paper. Let us try.

Example No. 5

HISTORY Time 2 hours

Do Question 1 and *three* other questions (four questions altogether).

1. *Write short notes (of about 8 lines) about each of the following: the early inhabitants of Africa, Bruce, Clapperton, Stanley.*

2. *What were the difficulties in the way of early explorers who wanted to reach Central Africa? Draw a map to help explain your answer.*

3. *There are a great many Moslems in North and West Africa. How did this come about?*

4. *Why was the Slave Trade so important, not only to Africa, but to England and the West Indies as well?*

5. *What were the reasons for Livingstone's many journeys in Central Africa?*

6. *Tell the story of the discovery of the source of the Nile, and of the explorers who traced its course through Uganda.*

§ 7. INVIGILATING

The *invigilator*, the person who watches while candidates write an examination, is an important person and has important duties. All children are eager to do well in an examination: indeed the result of it may make a great deal of difference to them. This being so, the invigilator must assume that they will be likely to take a quick look at their neighbour's paper, if they are given a chance to do so. It is his job, as far as possible, to see that no such chance is given.

No doubt you will act as an invigilator sooner or later. It is quite likely that you may have to invigilate an important, external examination, although you may not set or correct one. What then must you do?

(i) IN AN IMPORTANT EXAMINATION, EACH CANDIDATE MUST SIT IN A SEPARATE DESK

Each desk must be at least a foot away from the next. For scholarship examinations, secondary school entrance examinations and the like, it is worth while to send another class home in order to make sure that your examination candidates have plenty of room.

Of course, I know that in end-of-term tests in a Primary school, it will often be quite impossible for each child to sit in a separate desk, but if you have plenty of blackboard space, you may be able to write two tests on the board and bring in half another class to sit in alternate places with half your own class. Whenever a class has printed or duplicated question papers, this arrangement is always possible.

(ii) SIT WHERE YOU CAN SEE THE WHOLE CLASS

If the class-room has a platform, this is easy. If there is no platform, then you ought to stand up or walk quietly up and down. Many experienced invigilators spend a good deal of their time at the back of the room. No-one knows who or what they are looking at—indeed they may be reading or even asleep—but their presence there is enough.

It is not really possible to invigilate properly, and do something else at the same time. If there is a platform, and you see the whole class when you raise your eyes, you may be able to read or set or correct other examination papers. But your object in setting the test is to see what the class can do without help, and your job is to see that they get no help either from their neighbours or from pieces of paper hidden in their pockets or inside their desks.

(iii) AVOID NOISE

(a) Put everything ready before the class comes in: paper, blotting-paper, pens, ink, geometry boxes, etc.

(b) See that every child knows what he has to bring with him.

(c) Do not let anyone leave the room except in very special circumstances.

(d) If a test has to be written on the blackboard, write it before the class comes in, so that you can give all your time to them.

(e) Provide a clock.

(iv) AVOID EXPLANATIONS

If you want to explain something, explain it at the beginning: see that all candidates are listening to the explanation and not writing their names at the top of the paper.

A good examiner will have chosen his words carefully, and a paper which has been properly set will contain all the explanations which are necessary.

Many children ask for explanations, of course, to save themselves the trouble of thinking or because they are afraid of doing the wrong thing. They must learn to think and to follow instructions. Many hundreds of times I have been asked: "*Please, sir, what does this mean?*" Almost always I can safely answer: "*Read what it tells you to do, and then do it.*"

§ 8. MORE ABOUT INVIGILATING

When you have to invigilate a class for another examiner, especially for an external examiner, there are a number of points to remember.

(a) See that every child has put his name or number in the right place on the paper.

(b) See that every child has put his sheets in order, with page one at the top and the last page at the bottom.

(e) If the candidates have been given numbers, as they often are for external examinations, arrange the papers in order, with the smallest number on top. Nothing (except perhaps bad handwriting) makes an examiner more angry than having to sort out sets of papers from one or two schools before he corrects them.

(d) Make a list of the candidates who are absent and pin it to the front sheet.

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A few years ago I examined a class in Elementary Arithmetic. It was a class of adults, who had attended a special course and this was their passing-out test. It was important in a way because the results were going to affect the candidates' rates of pay. I did not invigilate myself, and when I received the written answers I found one or two very strange results.

Q. 1 in this paper was: "*Write down these numbers in figures and add them together: one thousand four hundred and seven*; *two hundred and thirty*; *nine*; *seventy-five*."

Here in Columns 1 and 2 are the results I got from Candidate A and Candidate B. The correct answer is shown in Column 3.

Example No. 6

1. *Candidate A*	2. *Candidate B*	3. *Correct*
147	147	1407
23	23	230
9	9	9
75 +	57 ×	75 +
11324	11324	1721

These answers were strange enough to make me look at them again. What do you think about them?

I will tell you what I said to myself.

(i) The answer of A is wrong, he has not written the first two numbers correctly in figures, and he has not added up his figures correctly.

(ii) Candidate B has got the same wrong answer: he has arrived at it in exactly the same way, except that he has written 57 instead of 75 (and an × for multiply instead of a + for add).

Therefore I think B has copied from A, but because I know all this class write very slowly, it probably took him about 5 minutes careful work to copy all this. This means that the invigilator neglected his job: he was not watching for five minutes: perhaps he was not even in the room. He is certainly a bad invigilator, and if this is an example of his work, he is probably also a very bad teacher.

§ 9. MARKING EXAMINATIONS: PREPARING THE GROUND

I have already suggested more than once in earlier sections of this book that, at the time you set your questions, you should also make a summary of the answers you expect, and of the scheme of marking you intend to use. The reasons I gave were:

(i) To make sure that the questions you have set are carefully worded, and lead to the answers you want.

(ii) To enable you to set a well-balanced paper, and one which covers all the work which has been done.

(iii) To make it unnecessary for the invigilator to spend a lot of time explaining the questions, and interrupting the class by doing so.

(iv) To save yourself time when you come to correct and mark the *scripts*, that is, the written answers.

(v) To enable you to decide what maximum marks you are going to give for each question and each part of each question.

These last two reasons now need to be considered more carefully.

(1) It is very likely that you will have to correct and mark your papers in a hurry. In England many teachers mark most of their examinations at home at night, but you may not have enough room or enough light to work easily at home, and so you must do everything you can to prepare the ground, so that you can use what time you have to do your marking as thoroughly as possible.

(2) When the questions ask for facts or for simple short answers, you will find it an easy matter to make a fair copy of the answers to the whole paper. For Arithmetic and other Maths tests, it is also a good idea to set out the whole paper, as this will make it easy to find mistakes in the working (see Example No. 6). If the answers are likely to be short essays (as in the paper in Example No. 5 on p. 17) it will probably be sufficient to make notes of the main points you expect to find in the answers.

(3) Sometimes you will be asked to correct and mark papers which have been set by somebody else. In this case it is more than ever important that you should know what answers he expects: you should ask him for his summary and for his marking scheme well in advance, so that you can, if necessary, ask him to explain anything which is not clear.

(4) You may be asked to act as one of a team of examiners, sharing the work of marking one examination. So it may be helpful to explain here what happens when the number of papers is too large for one person to mark. This is often the case with external examinations. It is usual to appoint a Chief Examiner, who sets the paper and decides how it shall be marked. He chooses a number of helpers, often called *scrutinisers*, who each mark a number of papers. The Chief Examiner will probably call a meeting of the scrutinisers to explain and discuss the way the papers are to be marked.

If the number of papers is very large, he may also appoint *moderators*: their job is to answer any questions the scrutinisers may have, and to see that all of them keep, as far as possible, to the same standards. They often do this by re-marking a few papers already dealt with by each scrutiniser. An Examiner who has no assistants will act as moderator himself.

§ 10. MARKING EXAMINATIONS: STANDARDS

The greatest difficulty which you will meet, indeed the greatest difficulty which all examiners meet, is that of keeping to a standard, that is of making sure that you do, in fact, give the same marks to two candidates who have written answers of equal value.

As long as you have only to mark facts, or short simple statements, or school mathematics, you have no need to worry: the answer is either right or wrong, or partly right: your marking scheme will usually tell you how many marks to give and you have no need to compare the work of one candidate with the work of any other.

But as soon as you come to mark any *essay* question, in History or Geography or Science or Language or whatever it may be, you are up against a problem to which no certain answer has ever been found.

You can be fairly sure that you have picked out the best papers and given them the most marks: you can be fairly sure that you have picked out the worst papers and given them the lowest marks. But can you be sure, when you give 62 to the 15th paper you correct and 60 to the 30th paper, that No. 15 is really just a little better than No. 30?

The answer is "*No, you cannot be sure,*"—but there are some things you can do to make it more likely.

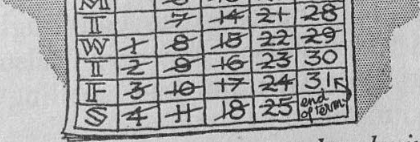
(i) Mark all the answers to one question before you go on to the next. You have then only one question to think of at a time.

(ii) Before you begin to mark a question, look quickly through a few scripts. This *sample* will help you to decide whether the first two or three answers you mark are good, fair or bad. You will have a standard to compare them with.

(iii) As you mark the scripts, put them into separate heaps—Heap A for excellent, B for good, C for fair, D for weak and E for poor. At the end you can compare the papers in each group and if necessary re-mark them.

Some examiners use a *nominal scale* (that is, the letters A, B, C, etc., instead of numbers) for the first sorting, and only give a number of marks at the end. Others use a fifteen point nominal scale A+, A, A–, B+, B, B–, C+, C, C–, D+, D, D–, E+, E, E–.

All this will make you think that marking examinations is a very long business. You are quite right: it is. If the examination is important, it is also important that you should take a great deal of time and trouble over it.



"Marking examinations is a very long business . . ."

§ 11. MARKING EXAMINATIONS: OTHER THINGS TO CONSIDER

If you are marking an examination, say, in History, there are other things beside History which you may wish to count.

(i) **Handwriting**: Many examiners give a *bonus*, that is, extra marks over the maximum, for handwriting. Others mark out of, say, 95 and give the other 5 marks for handwriting. It is quite common to see at the top of question papers that marks will be given for good handwriting. I think you should do everything you can to encourage good handwriting: some of your children, sooner or later, may have to sit for some external examination, in which the examiner has several hundred scripts to correct. He will be very unwilling to waste his time trying to read bad handwriting and in the end, he will give it up and give the candidate no marks at all for what he cannot read. You and I would do the same.

(ii) **Arrangement**: the same is true of arranging arithmetic. A child must learn to arrange his work so that an examiner can follow all the steps. No examiner has time to follow his candidates into the margin: no examiner can know what the candidate has written on his desk or on his blotting paper.

(iii) **Spelling**: I suggest that you might give a bonus for this also. You might also consider taking off marks for bad spelling up to a maximum of, say, 5 marks.

(iv) **Poor English**: many children have to answer History and other questions in English before they really know enough English to do so. It always seems to me a little unfair that a child who knows his subject well, and can make himself understood, should lose a large number of marks for mistakes in English. Perhaps the best idea would be the same as I have suggested for spelling—to take off marks for bad English, but not to take off more than 5 or perhaps 10.

(v) **Long answers**: Of course a long answer is often no better than a short one: in fact, it is often worse, because it contains much which does not answer the question and even much that has no meaning. But it is sometimes necessary to compare a short, clear, answer which contains all the points you want, with a longer one in which the points have been strengthened with examples or word pictures. When the examiner reads the first answer, he says to himself, "This contains all the points I want, I will give him full marks". When he comes to the second, he says "This contains no more than the first, and yet it is a better answer. Shall I give him a bonus?" I think he should.

(vi) **Too many questions**: Sometimes a candidate does more questions than he has been told to do. If, say, he is asked to do 4 questions and answers 5, I have no doubt that the correct thing to do, is to mark the first four questions he has answered and to ignore the fifth.

§ 12. MARKING EXAMINATIONS: CORRECTING ARITHMETIC

In this section I have set out nine answers to the same sum in Arithmetic. The sum is to be marked out of 10. I have shown underneath each answer the points you ought to think about, and it will then be for you to decide how many marks you would give to each candidate.

Example No. 7

Q. 7208 × 684

Candidate No. 1

$$\begin{array}{r} 7208 \\ 684\ \times \\ \hline 43248 \\ 57664 \\ 28832 \\ \hline 4930272 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Correct answer. He has multiplied by the biggest figure (600) first: this is the method you have taught this class.

Candidate No. 2

$$\begin{array}{r} 7208 \\ 684\ \times \\ \hline 28832 \\ 57664 \\ 43248 \\ \hline 4930272 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Correct answer, but he has multiplied by the smallest figure (4) first. This is what he was taught to do at his last school.

Candidate No. 3

```
   7208
    684
-------
43238
 57664
  28832
-------
4929272
-------
```

He has made a mistake (6 × 8 = 48 not 38) in the top row: this has led to a mistake in the answer, although he has added up his own figures correctly. He has also left out the × sign in setting out the sum.

Candidate No. 4

```
   7208
    684 ×
-------
43248
 57664
  28832
-------
4930262
-------
```

He has made a mistake in addition so that his answer is 10 wrong.

Candidate No. 5

```
   7208
    684 ×
-------
43248
 57664
  28832
-------
4920272
-------
```

This candidate has also made a mistake in addition, but his answer is wrong by 10,000. Is this any worse than No. 4 who was wrong by 10?

Candidate No. 6

```
    684
   7208 ×
-------
4788
 1368
   5472
-------
4930272
-------
```

Correct answer, but he has multiplied 684 × 7208 instead of 7208 × 684.

Candidate No. 7

$$\begin{array}{rl} 7208 & \\ 684 & \times \\ \hline 4368 & \\ 5804 & \\ 2912 & \\ \hline 4930272 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer correct, but none of the working correct. (He has ignored the 0.) Where did he get this answer from?

Candidate No. 8

$$\begin{array}{rl} 7028 & \\ 684 & \times \\ \hline 42168 & \\ 56204 & \\ 28112 & \\ \hline 4806952 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

He has copied down the sum wrong, but after that has worked out his own sum correctly.

Candidate No. 9

$$\begin{array}{rl} 7208 & \\ 684 & \times \\ \hline 4930272 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Answer correct, but no working, even in the margin.

Notice that all the candidates know how to do compound multiplication (except perhaps No. 9), and that all the candidates (except No. 7 and perhaps No. 9) know how to deal with the 0.

If this were the most difficult sum in a second year paper, would you mark it differently from the easiest sum in a fifth year paper?

§ 13. WHAT DO MARKS MEAN?

When you mark an examination, you will probably find that there are one or two very good papers, and a few good ones; one or two very bad papers, and a few poor ones: but most of them will fall into a middle group, neither good nor bad.

So much is obvious: but it has been found by experiment that the results of examinations follow rules, like a sum in Arithmetic.

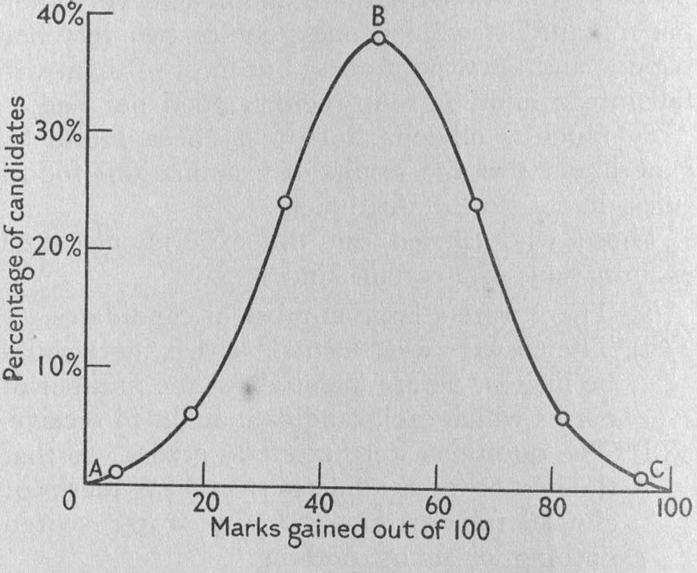
Those who carried out the experiments used examinations of a certain kind.

(i) There were a large number of candidates.
(ii) The answers were *factual*, so that there could be little or no argument about the number of marks which each candidate ought to receive.
(iii) The questions were carefully graded, so that the best of the candidates scored full marks or almost full marks, and the worst scored nothing, or almost nothing.

The results of these experiments showed that in *all* examinations of this kind, the examiner might expect:

1%	of the candidates to get between	91%	&	100%
6%	,, ,, ,, ,,	75%	&	90%
24%	,, ,, ,, ,,	59%	&	75%
38%	,, ,, ,, ,,	43%	&	58%
24%	,, ,, ,, ,,	26%	&	42%
6%	,, ,, ,, ,,	11%	&	25%
1%	,, ,, ,, ,,	0%	&	10%

This table can also be shown as a graph, see next page.



On the graph the line ABC shows the number of candidates who may be expected to fall into each group. The line is, as you see, a curve, and is called the *curve of probability*, or *the normal curve*.

Although only factual tests were used for this experiment, the conclusion was drawn that the results of *all* examinations followed the same rules, and that therefore the *curve of probability* would be true of *all* examinations.

How then does this apply to you?

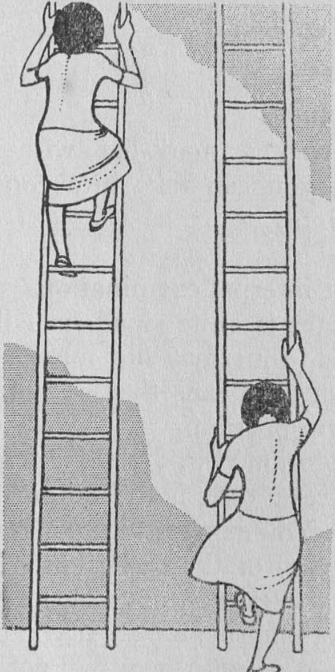
There is no need for you to complete a table like the one of the previous page, or to plot the results on a graph, every time you mark an examination. But it is both interesting and worth while to look briefly at your list of marks and to compare them, very roughly, with the table or curve of probability. If your results are quite different, you ought to try and find out why.

In comparing a mark-list with the table of probabilities, you can take into consideration the following points:

(i) In most internal examinations, the number of candidates is quite small (usually between 15 and 40). This may not make any difference, but it often means that one of the groups is out of proportion.

(ii) As I mentioned in § 2, your object in setting end-of-term tests is to find out what the class knows. You expect most of them to answer a good many of the questions. If you get the results you expect, none of the candidates will get less than, say, 40%. If you then plot these results on a graph, you will get a curve of the same shape but pushed to the right.

(iii) You ought to get the same table or curve from your marks, whether the answers are facts, short simple statements, sums or essays. But most examiners find that the *spread* of the marks they have given, that is, the difference between the top candidate and the bottom candidate, is much greater in an Arithmetic paper than it is in any paper of the essay type. A great many examiners find it very difficult to give full marks (out of, say, 25) for an essay, and equally difficult to give 0.



"The difference between the top candidate and the bottom candidate . . ."

§ 14. LEARNING FROM RESULTS

Here are the marks of the end-of-term tests in an imaginary school in History, Geography, Maths. and English.

(*Note: the class is very small, in fact too small to give completely satisfactory results. But I have no space for a larger class.*)

The numbers in brackets are the places.

Example No. 8

Name	*Hist.*	*Geog.*	*Maths.*	*Eng.*	*TOTAL*
Max.	100	100	100	100	400
Christina	78 (4)	39 (6)	72 (3)	65 (4)	254 (4)
Jacobo	75 (6)	22 (8)	78 (2)	24 (9)	199 (7)
Joanna	68 (9)	28 (7)	50 (7)	34 (8)	180 (8)
John	85 (1)	56 (1)	35 (8)	88 (1)	264 (3)
Juma	77 (5)	49 (4)	4(10)	48 (6)	178 (9)
Maria	80 (3)	51 (3)	58 (6)	39 (7)	228 (6)
Mariko	70 (8)	47 (5)	94 (1)	59 (5)	270 (1)
Musa	82 (2)	52 (2)	62 (5)	72 (3)	268 (2)
Paulo	65(10)	16(10)	5 (9)	13(10)	99(10)
Petro	73 (7)	19 (9)	69 (4)	81 (2)	242 (5)

Now let us look at these results one by one. For each set of marks, I have made a list of the number of candidates in each group and in brackets I have shown the number of candidates who ought to be in each group according to the table of probability given on p. 33, if the test had been set under those conditions.

1. History

76%—100%—5 (.7)
59%— 75%—5 (2.4)
43%— 58%—0 (3.8)
26%— 42%—0 (2.4)
0%— 25%—0 (.7)

The top candidate (John) scored 85, and the bottom one (Paulo) scored 65. The *spread* is therefore 20.

As no-one got less than 65, has the examiner been too kind? Or has he perhaps given too many marks for poor essay questions?

Was the paper too easy? Or was the paper aimed on purpose at the lower part of the class so that there were a number of questions which everyone could do?

---

2. Geography

76%—100%—0 (.7)
59%— 75%—0 (2.4)
43%— 58%—5 (3.8)
26%— 42%—2 (2.4)
0%— 25%—3 (.7)

The top candidate (John again) scored 56, and the bottom one (poor Paulo) scored 16. The *spread* is therefore 40. No-one got more than 56, but five came close together at the top (47, 49, 51, 52, 56).

Has the examiner marked too strictly? Was the paper too difficult? Has he been teaching only the top part of the class and was the paper set to suit those at the top?

3. Mathematics

76%—100%—2 (.7)
59%— 75%—3 (2.4)
43%— 58%—2 (3.8)
26%— 42%—1 (2.4)
0%— 25%—2 (.7)

Top this time is Mariko with 94. Bottom is Juma with 4. The *spread* is 90, very large, but this often happens in Maths tests. There are only 3 in the bottom two groups (35,5,4). Are the two at the bottom (Juma and Paulo) really so much worse than the rest?

In the same way Mariko is 16 marks ahead of No. 2 (Jacobo). Is he really so much better?

The examiner should look again at the papers of Mariko, Juma and Paulo, to make sure he has marked them fairly.

---

4. English

76%—100%—2 (.7)
59%— 75%—3 (2.4)
43%— 58%—1 (3.8)
26%— 42%—2 (2.4)
0%— 25%—2 (.7)

Top is John again with 88. Paulo (yet again) is bottom with 13. The *spread* is 75.

This table (and the last) are as good as you can expect from a small class. If the number of candidates had been very much larger in this case, you would have expected the middle group to be larger in proportion.

Now what can we learn from the totals and the final places?

(i) Mariko comes out top, because of his very good mark in Mathematics. In the other papers he was 8th, 5th and 5th.

(ii) Do you think it is fair that he should come out above John who was 1st, 1st, 8th and 1st?

(iii) And what about Musa who was 2nd, 2nd, 5th and 3rd? His final place was 2nd, below Mariko and above John.

(iv) Now look at the bottom of the class. Poor Paulo (10th, 10th, 9th and 10th) is clearly very weak and I don't suppose he can be promoted. He may even have to be discharged.

(v) Juma is 9th. He was 10th in Maths and 5th, 4th and 6th in the other three papers. Is it fair that he should come below Joanna (9th, 7th, 7th, 8th) and Jacobo (6th, 8th, 2nd, 9th)?

(vi) Do you think that the Maths paper, because of its very wide spread, carries too much weight? After all, Mariko was certainly top in the final order only because he did a good Maths paper, and Juma bottom (except for Paulo) because he did a bad one.

(vii) What would have happened to a candidate who got 55 marks in each of the four papers? In History, he would have been bottom, 10 marks below Paulo: in Geography second, one mark behind John: in Maths 7th and in English 6th.

Does the mark a candidate gets then mean nothing? Or is it the place which means nothing? Or does neither mark nor place mean anything?

§ 15. SCALING

Many teachers think that the ordinary method, used in the last section for finding the final total and order is unfair. They argue:

(i) That if there is one set of marks with a wide spread it will carry more weight than it ought to, and that the marks which have the widest spread are too often those for Mathematics.

(ii) That any paper with essay answers is likely to result in a narrow spread, and that if the spread is very narrow, the marks will have little or no effect on the final total and order.

(iii) That some papers are easier than others, and that candidates are likely to get more marks for an easy paper than for a difficult one, which is not as it should be.

(iv) That some examiners mark more kindly than others.

So, instead of adding up the marks as they stand, they *scale* them. There are many different ways of *scaling* marks: some of them are as difficult as a School Certificate Maths paper. But the easiest and most common method of *scaling* marks is to convert them to a scale of 0 to 100, that is to give the bottom candidate 0, and the top candidate 100, and to give everyone else his correct proportion of the new spread, which is, of course, 100.

To find the correct proportion, *divide the scaled spread* (100) *by the unscaled spread*. For every candidate, *multiply* the figure you have obtained in this way *by the difference between his own unscaled mark and the unscaled mark of the bottom candidate.*

To put this rule in general terms, call the unscaled spread x, the unscaled mark of the candidate you are dealing with y, and the unscaled mark of the lowest candidate z. Then for every candidate work out $\frac{100}{x}(y-z)$. Of course the figure $\frac{100}{x}$ will remain the same for the whole set of marks.

Let us see how this works out in practice.

Here is a set of marks, arranged, to make it easier to follow, in order of merit.

Example No. 9

Unscaled Marks	*Scaled Marks*
A — 74	A — 100
B — 61	B — 74
C — 49	C — 50
D — 38	D — 28
E — 24	E — 0

When the marks are scaled, A gets 100, and E gets 0.

The unscaled spread is $74 - 24 = 50$

$$\therefore \frac{100}{x} \text{ is } \frac{100}{50} = 2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \ & \text{B gets } 2 \times (61 - 24) = 74\\ & \text{C gets } 2 \times (49 - 24) = 50\\ & \text{D gets } 2 \times (38 - 24) = 28\end{aligned}$$

Here is another set of marks: these are not arranged in order of merit, though you can, of course, arrange them in that order, before you scale them, if you find it easier to do so.

Example No. 10

Unscaled Marks	*Scaled Marks*
A — 64	A — 77
B — 80	B — 100
C — 40	C — 43
D — 10	D — 0
E — 52	E — 60

When the marks are scaled, B gets 100 and D gets 0.

The unscaled spread is $80 - 10 = 70$

$$\therefore \frac{100}{x} \text{ is } \frac{100}{70} = \frac{10}{7}$$

$$\therefore \text{ A gets } \frac{10}{7} \times (64 - 10) = 77.1$$

$$\text{C gets } \frac{10}{7} \times (40 - 10) = 42.8$$

$$\text{E gets } \frac{10}{7} \times (52 - 10) = 60$$

Write down these answers to the nearest mark.

§ 16. AN EXAMPLE OF SCALING

The results of *scaling* by this method the sets of marks on p. 37 are given below.

Name	*Hist.*	*Geog.*	*Maths.*	*Eng.*	*TOTAL*
Max.	100	100	100	100	400
Christina	65	58	76	69	268 (3)
Jacobo	50	13	82	18	163 (8)
Joanna	15	30	51	28	124 (9)
John	100	100	34	100	334 (1)
Juma	60	83	0	47	190 (7)
Maria	75	88	60	35	258 (5)
Mariko	25	78	100	61	264 (4)
Musa	85	90	64	79	318 (2)
Paulo	0	0	1	0	1(10)
Petro	40	8	72	91	211 (6)

NOTE:

The spread in the History test was 20. *Everybody gets* 5 *times the number of marks over* 65 (*the lowest mark*).

The spread in Geography was 40: *everybody gets* 5/2 × *the number of marks over* 16 (*the lowest mark*).

The spread in Mathematics was 90: *everybody gets* 10/9 × *the number of marks over* 4 (*the lowest mark*).

The spread in English was 75: *everybody gets* 4/3 × *the number of marks over* 13 (*the lowest mark*).

How do the *scaled* results compare with the *unscaled* results on p. 37?

(i) Mariko who climbed up to the top because of a good Maths paper, goes down to 4th in the *scaled* results. This seems quite fair as his places were 8th, 5th, 1st and 5th.

(ii) John (1st, 1st, 8th and 1st) goes up to top, and you may think he has been too kindly treated by the scaling, as his Maths paper was so poor.

(iii) Good steady work by Musa (2nd, 2nd, 5th, 3rd) brings him up to 2nd, and by Christina (4th, 6th, 3rd, 4th) brings her up to 3rd.

(iv) At the other end poor Paulo is even more clearly out of his depth than he was before. One result of scaling is to show up very clearly a very weak candidate (or a very strong one).

(v) Juma (5th, 4th, 10th, 6th) who was pushed down to 9th by a weak Maths paper, appears at 7th after *scaling*, above Jacobo (6th, 8th, 2nd, 9th) and Joanna (9th, 7th, 7th, 8th). It certainly seems fair that he should be above Joanna. Perhaps Jacobo is a little unlucky to be now below him.

To sum up: (1) Most of the things which seemed to be unfair about the final order as it stood have now been put right. This is of course as it should be: otherwise it would certainly not be worth while scaling the marks. (2) The marks now certainly mean little or nothing: it is the final order which is important.

You should remember perhaps that scaling is a mystery to most school children. You must certainly not therefore give back the papers with the *unscaled* marks on them and then announce the *scaled* results. It will take you several days to explain the change. Indeed, many teachers think that it is a mistake ever to put any marks on the answer paper, if they are to be returned to the candidates.

§ 17. INTELLIGENCE TESTS

As has been shown in the last section, scaling makes it possible to compare more fairly one set of marks with another set of marks, and to give each set equal weight in the final total.

But, even if the results are scaled, examinations of the kind which are set by custom in most schools are not satisfactory when they have to be used to decide which children shall be accepted into a higher grade of school.

(i) THEY DO NOT AFFECT THE OPINION OF THE EXAMINERS

It is still possible for one examiner to give an essay, say, 22 out of 25 and for another examiner to give the same essay, say, 16 out of 25. It is still possible for a candidate to get 44% when marked by one examiner and 37% when marked by another. The future of a candidate may, in fact, depend on luck.

(ii) THEY MEASURE WHAT THE CANDIDATE HAS BEEN TAUGHT, AND NOT WHAT HE IS CAPABLE OF LEARNING

It must be the aim of those whose task it is to select children for Secondary* Schools, to choose the ones who are likely to gain most benefit from a secondary education, in fact, the most intelligent children, and not only those who know the most, because they have been well taught, or those who have well-educated parents, who have taught them much more than they have learnt in school.

(iii) THEY DO NOT HELP TO DECIDE BORDER-LINE CASES

When the aim of an examination is to *choose the best*, there will always be a number of good candidates, who will pass whatever kind of examination is set, and whatever system of marking is used: there will also be a number of weak candidates who will fail under any conditions. But the examiner will always be faced with a group in the middle, sometimes a very large group, of whom some must be chosen and others left. It is, for these border-line cases, that the examiner must do everything he can to make sure of a fair result.

To try and find an answer to these problems, some examiners began to experiment with Intelligence Tests. These tests are of various kinds, but they have two things in common.

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* Secondary is here used to mean schools offering a course leading to a Certificate, the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate or General Certificate of Education (ordinary level).

(1) The answers will be clearly right or wrong. There are no essay questions, and therefore no room for the examiner's opinion. In many Intelligence Tests the answers are not even given in words or figures, but by underlining the correct answer, or some similar method.

(2) They do not set out to discover how much the children have been taught, but whether they know as much as, or more, or less than an average (or normal) child of the same age.

You will find some examples of Intelligence Tests in the Appendix on page 55. On the following page you will find some examples of *objective* tests in English: these are questions in which the answer is clearly right or wrong, and there is no room for the examiner's opinion. They do however require a knowledge of English and they are not therefore strictly Intelligence Tests.

Tests of this kind are often used in England in selecting pupils for entrance to Secondary Grammar* Schools, either in addition to, or instead of, examinations of the ordinary kind. If they are used in addition to other tests, they are of great value in helping them to decide on border-line cases.

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* In England a selective examination is held at the age of 11. Those who get the best results go to a school offering a course leading to the General Certificate of Education in what is called a Secondary Grammar School. The rest go to a Secondary Modern School until the age of 15, or to Secondary Technical School.

A. Put a line under the smallest thing in the line:

1. Inch, mile, chain, foot, yard.
2. Book, library, page, chapter, word.
3. 346, 968, 183, 167, 452.
4. Ounce, pound, ton, hundredweight, stone.
5. Minute, second, hour, day, week.

B. Two of the sayings or proverbs in each of the following groups of three have similar meanings.

Underline the *different one* in each group:

1. Many hands make light work.
   Too many cooks spoil the broth.
   Two heads are better than one.
2. The early bird catches the worm.
   First come, first served.
   Better late than never.

C. In each of these sentences, draw a line under the word which makes the sentences correct:

1. John writes better than . . . (*I*, *me*)
2. What news . . . there in the paper to-day? (*are*, *is*)
3. He has . . . any money. (*no*, *not*)
4. Each of you must take . . . own pen. (*your*, *his*)

D. Put a line under the word which best shows the meaning of the word in CAPITAL LETTERS:

1. STILL means (quiet, heavy, best, large).
2. BARE means (elephant, naked, bear, naughty).
3. YOUNG means (happy, strong, old, youthful).
4. REAL means (genuine, valuable, exact, correct).

But Intelligence Tests are also used in England for their original purpose, that is to find out whether children are of average intelligence or are more or less intelligent than the average. Various sets of tests have been prepared for children of all ages. The teacher sets one of the tests and marks it in accordance with the instructions in the book. By means of a table supplied by the author, he then converts the marks to a scale on which the average child scores 100, and the rest are placed above or below this point according to their results in the test. The figure obtained in this way is known as the I.Q. (Intelligence Quotient).

A child who has an I.Q. of 100 is of average intelligence; one who has an I.Q. below 100 is of less than average intelligence and one with an I.Q. of more than 100 is above average.

The preparation of full sets of Intelligence Tests is a matter for an expert: they must be carefully graded for each age group, suitable for the surroundings in which the children live, and translated into their own language. But any teacher can make use of the type of question to be found in Intelligence Tests. If you are not entirely satisfied with the results of your ordinary examinations, you may find it interesting to study this subject more carefully, set some tests of this kind, and compare the results you get from them with the others.

§ 18. WHAT ARE EXAMINATIONS FOR?

Most children who stay at school for long enough will have to enter for an examination, if they wish to obtain a place in a Secondary School. This examination may consist of papers of the ordinary kind: it may include Intelligence Tests, an oral test or an interview; the result may depend to some extent on the report of the Headmaster or Headmistress.

Those who complete a more advanced course will probably enter for one or more external examinations, to obtain some kind of Certificate: either a Junior Certificate, which is recognised throughout the country in which they live, or a School Certificate (Cambridge Overseas or G.C.E.) which is recognised throughout the world—or, at any rate, throughout the British Commonwealth.

In fact there comes a time when a child must, without help, collect together what he knows, and prove his knowledge and ability. This is a special skill which requires practice, and a teacher may reasonably feel that from time to time he must give his pupils a chance to practice for the more important tests ahead.

But is this sufficient reason for holding full examinations at the end of every term from the first year of the Primary course onwards? Many schools hold termly examinations: they spend a week on revision, a week on the examinations themselves, and a week on correcting them and going through them. This is an annual total of nine weeks, *nearly a quarter of the school year.*

Can any school afford to take nine weeks, or anything like it, out of the time they have for teaching?

In addition to the time which revision and examinations take, here are some points which the staffs of all schools should think about.

(i) Young children know very little, and find it difficult to make use of what knowledge they have. It is often better to give them frequent short revision tests rather than full examinations at the end of term.

(ii) Most teachers know a great deal about their pupils. They do not need to spend three weeks or so at the end of each term on tests to find out who is too backward to be promoted. They probably know this already.

If a teacher needs to know the order of his class at the end of the term or the end of a year, he can find it out from a carefully kept mark-book; he can include, if he likes, short revision tests held from time to time throughout the term.

Many people think that a *nominal scale*, that an *A* group, a *B* group, etc., gives a more real picture of a child's progress during the term, than a *numerical order*. To decide the right group for each child, the teacher will use his class mark-book and his own knowledge of his pupils and of the class as a whole.

(iii) Much of the time given for revision is often wasted. In the early years, at any rate, children have few text books and little material of any other kind. They need the teacher's help to guide them to collect together what they have been taught, and this help, of course, the teacher should be giving them all the time and not only at the end of the term.

(iv) When a child has finished his examinations, he starts thinking about the holidays. There is a danger that the last few days of term will be wasted: the teacher is occupied in marking papers or, at best, in going through the papers with children who will spend a great deal of the next month forgetting what they have learnt at school.

Some teachers find it more profitable to go through examinations at the beginning of the next term.

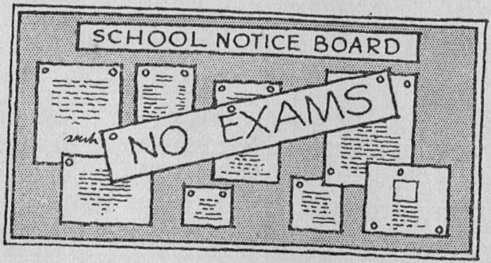
So we come to what is, perhaps, the most important question of all. It comes last in this book, but it ought, of course, to be asked at the beginning.

IS THERE ANY NEED TO HOLD EXAMINATIONS AT THE END OF EVERY TERM OR EVEN EVERY YEAR?

If a visitor comes to your school during examination time and asks you why you are holding them, what would your answer be?

To give the children practice in doing examinations.
or *To find out what the children know.*
or *To find out if I have taught them anything.*
or *To find out who is to be promoted, and who discharged.*
or *For a change from ordinary class work.*
or *To give me a change from class room teaching.*
or *Because the children like them.*
or *Because it is the custom.*
or *To make revision worth while.*
or *To find out who is good at examinations.*
or *Because the parents would be angry if we didn't.*

Are any of these reasons good reasons? If not, then I suggest that you should cancel the examinations at the end of next term, and use the time for more teaching.

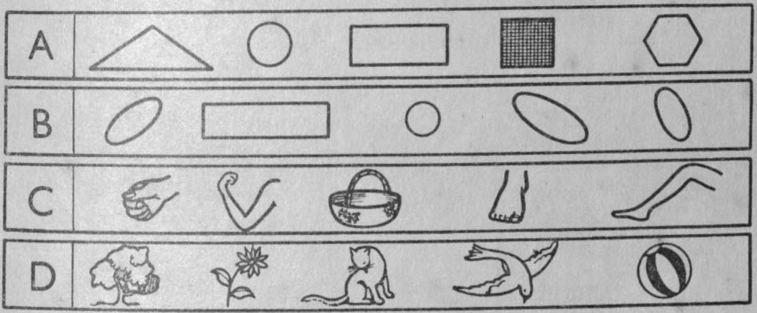


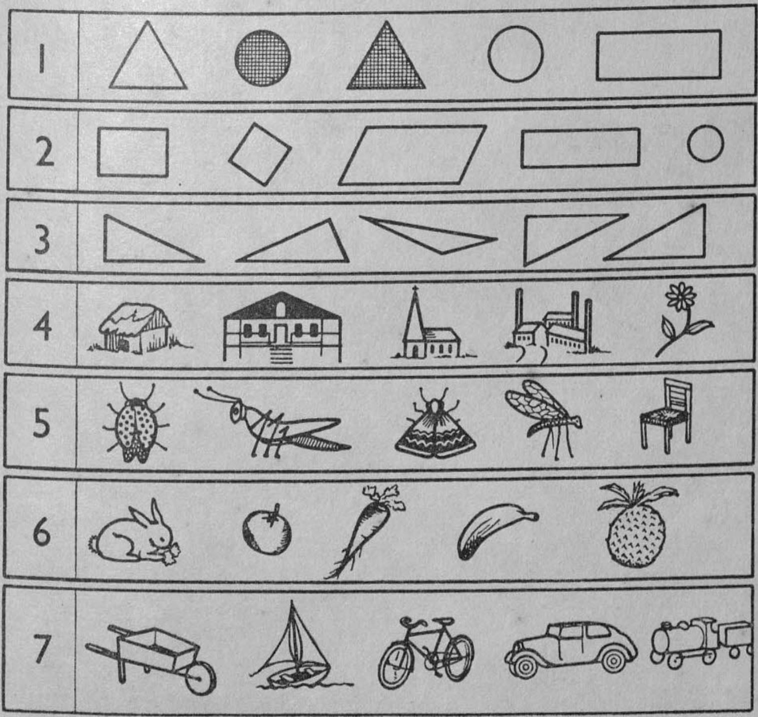
APPENDIX

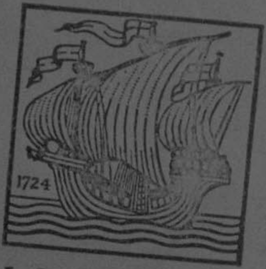
EXAMPLE OF AN INTELLIGENCE TEST

In this test, the child is asked to draw a circle round the drawing which belongs to a different family or group to the other drawings.

"FIND THE STRANGER"







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